DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 180 060 EA 012 109

AUTHOR Hughes, Meredydd G.
TITLE Administrative and Professional Relationships in Educational Administration. The Fundamentals of Educational Planning: Lecture-Discussion Series, No. 64.
INSTITUTION United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization, Paris (France). International Inst. for Educational Planning.
REPORT NO IIEP-TM-76-64
PUB DATE Jan 77
NOTE 16p.

EDRS PRICE MF01 Plus Postage. PC Not Available from EDRS.
DESCRIPTORS *Administrative Personnel: *Conflict Resolution: *Educational Administration: Foreign Countries: *Professional Personnel

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this paper is to identify and discuss problems that arise in educational administration when organizations and systems are staffed by persons with specialist qualifications who regard themselves as professionals. It discusses three possible conflicts between administrators and professionals, factors conducive to such conflict, and suggestions for solving the problems. The paper concludes with the suggestion for appropriate preparation and inservice training for senior educational administrators. It also suggests that research in different cultural contexts might help in the development of educational leaders rather than managerial technicians. (Author/LD)

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The Fundamentals of Educational Planning : Lecture - Discussion Series

No.64 ADMINISTRATIVE AND PROFESSIONAL RELATIONSHIPS IN EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION

by Meredydd G. Hughes

Unesco : International Institute for Educational Planning

EA 012 109

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IIEP/TM/76/64
January 1977

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ADMINISTRATIVE AND PROFESSIONAL RELATIONSHIPS IN EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION

by

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1. INTRODUCTION

In this paper my first aim will be to identify and discuss some of the problems in the administration of education which arise from the fact that educational organisations and systems are largely staffed by persons with specialist qualifications who may be regarded, and who regard themselves, as professionals. In the latter part of the paper I shall suggest some ways in which these problems can be resolved of made less acute.

2. PROFESSIONALS IN ORGANISATIONS

I began by reminding you of the characteristics of a bureaucracy, as stated by Max Weber in his influential theoretical analysis of bureaucracy as an 'ideal type'. (1) At least as a first approximation, the formulation may be applied without too much difficulty to the administration of education at different levels.

The essential features, according to Weber, are as follows:

(1) A clear division of labour among positions, leading to specialisation and expertise among staff, a characteristic which is particularly applicable to a professionally staffed organisation;

(2) A hierarchy of authority, the scope of that authority being precisely stated and circumscribed;

(3) A consistent system of rules and regulations, which ensures uniformity and co-ordination;

(4) A detached impersonal relationship among staff, and between staff and the clients of the organisation;

(5) Employment based on technical qualifications, with career advancement based on seniority or achievement or both.

These characteristics provide a framework both for the role specification of particular positions and for defining the relationships among those positions. Weber cogently argued that administration by the officials of a bureaucracy is the most efficient form of organisation; bureaucrats are governed by rules and controlled by hierarchical superiors, and this, it is claimed, ensures a rational and consistent pursuit of organisational goals, which are regarded as unproblematic. From this view point, to be called a bureaucrat is to receive a compliment.

Max Weber's views on bureaucracy have been much discussed, interpreted and further developed. They have been vigorously defended, and also strongly assailed from many view points. My concern in this paper will be with one specific criticism; namely, that Weber did not fully anticipate the consequences of staffing his ideal-type bureaucracy with highly trained specialists. These are people who have been trained to think for themselves and to ask awkward questions; by and large they are people who claim to be professionals.

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(1) Weber M., The Theory of Social and Economic Organisation, Glencoe, Ill. : The Free Press, 1947.

There are a number of sociological studies, relating to different types of organisation, which strongly suggest that professionals do not fit easily into bureaucratic organisations. They are very liable to come into conflict with their organisation, but organisations cannot do without their expertise and trained judgement. This is the dilemma which Weber does not seem to have fully appreciated

3. THREE CONFLICT SITUATIONS

Many conflict situations which arise in the administration of education can be regarded as instances of the administrative-professional clash which has also been reported in hospitals, in social service agencies and in research agencies. (1) I give three examples relating to education:

Firstly, conflicts can and do arise in ministries of education between the administrators and the professional educationists. In many countries an administrative official serves in the ministry of education for a limited period; he has come from some other ministry, and expects in most cases to move on in due course to yet another ministry. He is a generalist administrator and there may be a political dimension to his appointment; usually he has no special commitment to education. The background of members of the inspectorate or of the educational advisers or consultants tends to be rather different. The inspector, though based in the ministry, is a professional educationist with personal experience of schools and colleges; his whole attitude to problems is coloured by his previous experience as an educator, and he has a very definite commitment to the educational enterprise. No wonder that difficulties sometimes arise in the relationship of inspectors and ministry officials.

To make the point more specific, I will mention a not unusual situation I came across in one of the developing countries which I visited recently. A New Permanent Secretary of a state Ministry of Education, recently transferred from the Ministry of Finance, soon came into conflict with the Chief Inspector of Schools. The outcome, as described to me by one of the inspectors, was as follows:

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(1) For medical contexts see Ben-David, J., 'The professional role of the physician in bureaucratized medicine', Human Relations, 11, pp. 255-274, 1958; also Engel, G.V. 'Professional autonomy and bureaucratic organisation' Administrative Science Quarterly, 51, pp. 12-21, 1970.

For social service contexts see Scott, W.R. - 'Professionals in bureaucracies - areas of conflict', in Professionalization, Vollmer, H.M. and Mills, D.L. (eds), Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice Hall, 1966; also Billingsley, A. 'Bureaucratic and Professional orientation patterns', Social Service Review, 38, pp. 400-407, 1964.

For research agency contexts see McEwen, W.J., 'Position conflict and professional orientation in research organisation', Administrative Science Quarterly, 1, pp. 208-224, 1956; also Hall, D.T. and Lawler, E.E. 'Job characteristics and pressures and the organisational integration of professionals', Administrative Science Quarterly, 15, pp. 271-281, 1970

"The new Permanent Secretary refused to take any advice from the Chief Inspector. He concentrated power in himself and the only person he consulted on anything was the Finance Officer. The Chief Inspector became a figurehead, and the posting of professional staff was done with no regard to the question of who was to teach what. The only concern was to fill vacancies as they occurred. Then there were restrictions on touring by inspectors, and on visits by teachers and headteachers. Everything was formalised, and this resulted in the loss of a feeling of personal involvement in the work of the Ministry".

The situation would have been described - and, no doubt, perceived - rather differently from the viewpoint of the administrators. We have here a clear instance of negative consequences on relationships of the differing perspectives of administrative and professional staff in the senior ranks of a Ministry of Education.

Secondly, there are problems which arise in the relationships of the heads of educational institutions and the officials of their employing authority, whether that is the Ministry or the local authority or the school board. The heads of educational institutions such as primary and secondary schools, the principals of colleges of further education, and the vice-chancellors of universities, all wish to be recognised as educational leaders in their own right and not simply as executive officers under authority - and yet they are responsible and accountable to representatives of the wider society. Conflict situations tend to arise, as I found during recent research into the rôle of the secondary school head in England and Wales.(1)

The study showed that even in the very large schools the heads still regarded themselves as principal teachers, the leading professionals of the organisation, and not simply as school executives. This double reference creates difficulties, but also has much to commend it.

Even in Britain where the traditional expectation has been that the school head should have a considerable degree of autonomy, open conflict between heads and their employing authority has been comparatively rare (though there is one instance, the 'Tyndale Affair", which has received nation-wide notoriety in 1976). There are at least two considerations however, which suggest that the relationship of heads of educational institutions to external authority may increasingly be subject to strains and stresses in many countries, rather than being something which may be regarded as the peculiar problem of the British.

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(1) Different aspects of the research are reported in the following: Hughes, M.G., 'Research Report: The Innovating School Head-autocratic initiator or catalyst co-operation?', Educational Administration, 4 (1) pp. 29-45, 1975, and in British Journal of In-Service Education, 2, pp. 43-54, 1975; Hughes, M.G. 'The professional-as-administrator: the case of the secondary school-head', Chapter 3 in The Rôle of the Head, Peters R.S. (ed.) London: Routledge and Kegan Paul, 1976; Hughes, M.G. 'Consensus and Conflict about the rôle of the secondary school head', British Journal of Educational Studies, 25(1), 1977 (forthcoming).

One general factor is that in many countries the heads of schools and of other educational institutions are becoming more highly qualified, both academically and in terms of specific management training. (1) As the heads become more confident of their abilities to run their organisation on their own initiative, there is an increased likelihood of conflict difficulties arising between them and their employing organisations. A further consideration is the new emphasis on decentralisation, on devolution and decision-making at a more local level, which appears to be developing in many countries. As such influences make an impact on the government of education, it may be anticipated that heads of schools and colleges will increasingly expect to have some say, and to be listened to, on general educational issues and, in particular, on matters related to their individual institutions. Such situations, with the possibility of conflict with external authority, may clearly be interpreted in terms of an administrative-professional polarisation.(2)

My third example relates to problems within educational institutions. As staff increasingly come to regard themselves as full professionals, well able to make judgements within their particular field of expertise, their relationship with the head and the whole complex of hierarchical relationships in a large school may need to be reconsidered. In very many countries the question of staff participation, whether by formal consultation procedures or direct involvement in joint decision-making processes, is a very live issue. It raises problems not only between heads and staff but also among the staff themselves. An example is the differentiation which seems to be emerging in large secondary schools in Britain between staff whose main concern is with the academic work of the school, and those who are more involved with administration and the general welfare of the pupils. Such differences of emphasis, when particularly reinforced and institutionalised by means of salary differentials, can be the cause of friction and disunity among staff. (3) The problems which arise can again be analysed in terms of administrative and professional relationships.

4. FACTORS CONDUCIVE TO CONFLICT

We now turn to a more general discussion of the kind of issues in relation to professionalism which give rise to difficulties within organisations. In doing so, it may be observed that the definition of the term 'professional' raises difficulties, both theoretical and practical, which reflect status implications. (4) As space does not permit a detailed

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(1) Hughes, M.G. (ed), Secondary School Administration: A Management Approach, 2nd edn. Oxford: Pergamon, 1974.

(2) Hughes, M.G. and Richards, J. (eds), Autonomy and Accountability in Educational Administration, University College, Cardiff, 1975.

(3) Bennett, S. and Wilkie R., 'Structural conflict in school organisation', in Decision-making in British Education Fowler, G. et al. London: Heinemann, 1973.

(4) Hughes, E.C. 'Professions', Daedalus, 92, pp. 655-668, 1963.

consideration of the voluminous literature on professionalism and professionalisation, I shall offer as a working definition of a professional for present purposes that he is a person who carries out a specialized activity based on systematic knowledge and who is committed to his calling. It is my contention that when the professional's work is performed within an organisation, two main factors may be identified which are conducive to conflict. These are:

(i) the professional's resistance to hierarchical control, and

(ii) his external orientation.

Firstly, we consider the professional's tendency to object to hierarchical control. As a specialist in his field, the professional is well aware that it is unsafe to assume that technical expertise necessarily, or even generally, increases with position in the formal hierarchy of the organisation. Furthermore, it is through the independent exercise of his trained judgement, irrespective of his formal position, that the expert makes his contribution to the organisation; it is through precisely the same activity that he comes into conflict with the administrative hierarchy. Studies of scientists in industry, by Kornhauser and others, have concluded that organisational efforts to coordinate inevitably clash with the professional staff's striving for autonomy. (1) According to one observer, professionals "seem unreasonably resistant to administrative control". (2)

Though professional claims to autonomy are often made in uncompromising terms, some empirical studies suggest that the extent of resistance to hierarchical control is subject to wide variation. Thus it has been reported by W.R. Scott that social workers who regard their supervisors as 'professionally oriented' were less hostile to routine supervision than those who designated their supervisors as less professional. (3) The supervision is more acceptable when it can be interpreted as an occasion for guidance by a senior colleague. There are obvious implications for the school situation. My own research showed that the extent to which the school head is regarded by staff as a person whose views on educational matters are worthy of respect is a factor which influences staff attitudes to close supervision by the head.

The second factor conducive to conflict between the professional and his employing organisation is the professional's external orientation, as a result of which his loyalty to the organisation is liable to be suspect. His primary commitment is to the intellectual discipline of his

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(1) Kornhauser, W, Scientists in Industry : Conflict and Accommodation, Berkeley: University of California Press, 1963.

(2) Abrahamson, M., The Professional in the Organisation, Chicago: Rand McNally, 1965

(3) Scott, W.R. 'Reactions to supervision in a heteronomous professional organisation, Administrative Science Quarterly, 10, pp. 65-81, 1965

specialist field. Because of his relationship with professional colleagues outside there is a tendency for him psychologically to face outwards and away from the constraining structure of his own organisation.

This is an issue which has been discussed by Alvin Gouldner and others in terms of a cosmopolitan - local dichotomy. (1) The 'cosmopolitan' is a person who is highly committed to his professional skills and has an outside reference group orientation, i.e. he is the kind of person who reads professional journals, is active in his professional association and attends professional conferences outside his own organisation. Gouldner found that there was some tendency for such a person to be less loyal to his employing organisation as shown by his readiness to stay in that organisation rather than seek employment elsewhere. The 'local' in Gouldner's classification represents the other extreme on all three variables : weak commitment to professional skills, little evidence of outside reference group orientation, strong loyalty to the organisation.

More recent studies suggest that some professionals may be designated as both cosmopolitans and locals, in the sense that they manage to combine loyalty to their organisation and to their profession. Nevertheless it appears that there is liable to be a considerable tension between two types of organisational requirement, namely professional expertise and the continuity and commitment of personnel.

The professional's tendency to resist hierarchical control and to be only conditionally loyal to the system because of wider horizons and affiliations, poses severe managerial problems for organisations employing professionals. One can agree with Dahrendorf that conflict is not always dysfunctional for organisations; complete consensus could simply be the hallmark of a static and moribund organisation. In practice it would be unwise to assume that administrative and professional relationships are necessarily incompatible with each other. Much clearly depends on the perceptions of the situation held by the actors themselves, on the way in which - to use the language of the phenomenologists - they "construct their own reality". In any particular situation there will be political and personal factors which will affect the applicability of the administrative-professional construct presented in this paper, while a further complication is raised by the growth of the concept of professionalism among administrators themselves. There is scope for empirical research in this area from differing viewpoints, and exploration of the relevance of systems concepts being matched by case studies illuminated by the critical insight of a phenomenological perspective. (2)

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(1) Gouldner, A.W., 'Cosmopolitans and locals: towards an analysis of latent social rôles, I', Administrative Science Quarterly, 2, pp. 281-316, 1957.

(2) See Greenfield, T.B., 'Theory about organisation: a new perspective and its implications for schools', in Administering Education: International Challenge, Hughes, M.G. (ed), London: Athlone Press, 1975.

5. TECHNIQUES OF ACCOMMODATION

It is a matter of simple observation that not all professionally staffed organisations are torn asunder by internal stresses and debilitating conflict. In their book, Formal Organisations, Blau and Scott have argued that there are similarities, as well as differences, between professional and bureaucratic principles of organisation. (1) More basically it can be argued, while still retaining a traditional structuralist framework, that techniques are available which serve to lessen the conflict which would otherwise ensue when professional and organisational perspectives diverge. I propose to discuss three such techniques, namely:

(i) the separation of administrative and professional decisions;

(ii) the appointment of professionals as administrators, and

(iii) the participation of the professionals in organisational decision-making.

(a) The separation of administrative and professional decisions

This occurs in a rudimentary form when there is a tacit recognition of a distinction between administrative and technical supervision, even when undertaken by the same person. Thus a study of professionalism in medicine (2) reported that physicians in an out-patient clinic distinguished between their ready compliance with formal administrative arrangements concerning the scheduling of patients and students, and their more conditional acceptance of suggestions from the physician-in-charge concerning treatment. Similar examples could be adduced in relation to the timetabling and teaching of classes in colleges and universities.

The differentiation between administrative and professional decision-making may also, on a more formal basis, be built into the structure of the organisation, so that some rôles in the system are recognised as being specialised and different, set apart from the hierarchical structure of the organisation. In military terms we are differentiating between advisory 'staff-officer' positions and positions in the 'line' of authority from the field marshall to the ordinary soldier. The staff-line distinction provides a means of injecting professional expertise into the organisation at different levels, without involving the expert in the authority structure or in routine procedures.(3) Thus in Britain local education authorities appoint specialist supervisory personnel, often called advisers or organisers rather than inspectors, who go into schools to advise and assist teachers in a particular subject area or type of activity. Difficulties sometimes arise when inexperienced advisers or teachers fail to recognise the subtle difference between advice and direction.

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(1) Blau, P.M. and Scott, W.R. Formal Organisations, London, Routledge, 1963.

(2) Goss, M.E.W. 'Influence and authority among physicians in an out-patient clinic', American Sociological Review, 26 pp.39-50, 1961

(3) See Dalton, M., 'Conflicts between staff and line managerial officers', American Sociological Review, 15 pp. 342-351, 1950.

The staff-line distinction is also relevant in analysing the relationship, already discussed, of inspectors and administrators in a ministry of education, but it would be naive to assume that the institutionalisation of the two types of rôle will of itself reduce organisational conflict. Thus an inspector of schools in a developing country described his own experience in the following terms:

> "There is an inherent traditional conflict within the ministry between the officers of the planning and administrative divisions and those of the inspectorate division. The inspectors see that the children get the education they are supposed to get, by making sure that there are qualified teachers to teach, that equipment, buildings and other materials are satisfactory, and that the conditions laid down in the education law for the proper conduct of the schools are obeyed.
> But the actual money for the running of these schools is in the hands of the administrators who never visit the schools. Because of the long line of communication it is only very slowly that anything gets done. The inspectorate division grows impatient and accuses the planning and administrative division of deliberate delay. The charge is rejected and resented by the administrators."

The above example suggests that one should be cautious in one's advocacy of the staff-line distinction as a technique for lessening organisational conflict. A necessary pre-condition for success is that the occupants of both types of position substantially agree on their mutual role definition. In a situation such as is described above there may well be a strong case for the adoption, in a very deliberate way, of a system of Management by Objectives which requires the administrators and the professionals to come together to work out their common objectives. (1) They then have to agree together on the implications for their respective rôles and the relationships among those rôles, identifying key effectiveness areas and setting up improvements and development plans. Finally there is need for adequate appraisal and review processes, the results of which become the occasion and the stimulus for further change.

(b) The appointment of professionals as administrators

Differentiated rôle structures, however necessary and useful within an organisation, also inevitably create communication and transferral difficulties. Hence the importance of the boundary rôles or transferral occupations of the intermediaries whose task is to mediate between professional sub-systems and the wider organisation. In a professionally staffed organisation it may be argued that the 'professional-as-administrator' is in a position to play a key rôle in achieving accommodation between the organisation's emphasis on hierarchical control and the professional's desire for autonomy. (2) The idea is that if a senior professional is given the

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(1) See Davies J.L. 'Management by Objectives in Local Education Authorities and Educational Institutions', Educational Administration Bulletin (Journal of British Educational Administration Society). 1 (1) and 2 (1), 1972-73.

(2) See Barber, B. 'Some problems in the sociology of the professions', Daedalus, 92, pp. 669-688, 1963

responsibility for administrative decisions, he will understand the problems of the professionals in the organisation and will fully appreciate their viewpoint. Because of this the professionals will have confidence in him and will be more ready to agree to the organisational controls which they would otherwise find difficult to accept. The argument is that, as Etzioni puts it (1) the professional-as-administrator, because of his training and experience, 'is more likely to understand the special needs of a professional organisation and its staff than a lay administrator, and, because of his personal characteristics, he is more likely to be skilled in handling the needs and requests of his professional colleagues as well as those of administrative staff'.

Essentially the professional-as-administrator absorbs and internalises the disputes and differences of the organisation. He is thus especially exposed to rôle conflict, with divergent expectation from above and below, and consequently to a degree of rôle strain which not all persons can handle successfully. Professional values relating to the autonomy of the individual practitioner still have a strong appeal for him, but he is also aware of the organisation's need for co-ordination and control. Like the industrial foreman, whose predicament has been much researched, the professional-as-administrator is invidiously placed in a 'man in the middle position' with all its attendant strains. On the other hand it may be noted that such positions have a certain prestige, and that, though there is some tendency by professionals to disparage administrative rôles, the expression of such sentiments does not usually inhibit the acceptance of administrative responsibilities when the opportunity is presented.

The professional-as-administrator phenomenon is, of course, particularly evident in education. Heads of schools and principals of colleges usually have had substantial teaching experience, directors of education and school superintendents typically have had some experience in the schools, university vice-chancellors and presidents in the main have themselves been university academics. They therefore have some justification for claiming credibility as educational leaders both within their own system and as representatives of that organisation in the wider world.

As the complexity and size of the educational institution increases, the contribution of the chief executive and his senior colleagues to the primary professional tasks of the institution decreases to be only of symbolic significance. In my own study of secondary school headship in England and Wales I found that some heads of large schools attached considerable importance to regular teaching by the head but that others were more concerned that administrative duties should be performed efficiently. Members of school staff were generally more sympathetic to the second view. The study also showed that an innovative, outward-looking, interpretation of the concept of the head as leading professional of his organisation was more in accord with the realities of his rôle as chief executive than was a traditional interpretation in terms of personal teaching and a pastoral relationship to students and staff.

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(1) Etzioni, A. Modern Organisations, Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey : Prentice Hall, 1964.

The interesting issue which arises is whether the professional-as-administrator gradually develops a new kind of professionalism, a professionalism which is as much related to his growing administrative expertise and his increased sensitivity to social and political factors as it is to his original educational background. Research in this area on a cross-cultural basis would be illuminating.

A final point which may be considered under this heading is whether it is appropriate that a professional who transfers to an administrative position should do so within the same organisation or should move elsewhere. Is it desirable for instance, that a teacher should become the Head or Principal of a school at which he has taught for twenty years? Are there objections to the not unfamiliar situation in developing countries whereby a Chief Inspector is promoted to become Permanent Secretary in the same ministry? There is some evidence that such appointments create difficulties both for the person promoted and for those with whom he has previously worked in the organisation. (1) The personal relationships developed over the years, whether positive or negative, are liable to act as constraints on the freedom of action of the new chief executive, who finds that he has to consider matters from a wider perspective than was formerly the case. It would thus appear that, while it can be cogently argued that the chief executive of a professionally staffed organisation should himself have a professional background, it may also be desirable that his recent professional experience should have been obtained in another organisation.

(c) The participation of the professionals in organisational decision-making

The professional, while claiming autonomy in his specialist field, also expects to be consulted in a wide range of matters which affect his work and his status. It has been argued that his desire to participate in wider decisions is an extension of his expectation to exercise independent judgement in his professional activities. (2) Even in business management, it appears, professionalism results in supervisors using participative rather than authoritarian forms of leadership. (3)

In organisations in which professional personnel predominate, the part played, or not played, by the professional-as-administrator in facilitating staff participation is highly significant. Matthew Miles (4) at the end of his well known book of case studies, Innovation in Education, concluded that administrators "are crucial in introducing innovations, particularly those which involve structural change", and proceeded to argue "that organisational health ought to be priority one for any administrator seriously concerned

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(1) Carlson, R.O., School Superintendents:Career and Performance, Columbus: Charles E. Merrill Pub. Co, 1972

(2) Noble, T. and Pym B., 'Collegial authority and the receding locus of power', British Journal of Sociology, 21, pp. 431-445, 1970

(3) Strauss, S., 'Professionalism and occupational associations', Industrial Relations, 2, pp. 7-31, 1963

(4) Miles, M.B. (ed), Innovation in Education, New-York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1964

with innovativeness in today's educational environment". In developing the rather similar concept of 'organisational climate', Halpin and Croft identified eight independent dimensions by factor analysis and found that four of the dimensions were related to the style and quality of leadership given by the school principal. (1) In similar vein Hoyle has argued that "the willingness of a school to institutionalise curriculum development is very much dependent upon the manner in which the headteacher performs his leadership role". (2)

What I am suggesting is that the participation of staff in decision-making is not necessarily an alternative technique for reducing conflict in professionally-staffed organizations, but that it should be a natural consequence of the appointment of professionals as administrators. If the man who has been a professional completely changes his viewpoint and his values when he becomes an administrator, the justification for his appointment largely disappears. An important criterion for measuring his success as an administrator is the extent to which as a professional he encourages and facilitates the involvement of his professional colleagues in the decision-making of the organization.

That there are acute problems in determining the parameters and limits of staff participation cannot be denied. Recent experience related to the setting up of academic boards to decide curricular policy in colleges of further education in England and Wales suggests that it is often unrealistic to seek to draw a sharp distinction between consultation and joint decision-making by the Principal and his senior staff. (3) Any kind of organisational involvement of professional staff, however -whether formal or informal - can only be effective if there is an adequate programme for professional development through in-service training. Some interesting experiments have been undertaken in recent years in developing such training on an institutional basis, external consultants assisting the head and staff of a school or college to create their own programmes of organisational development.(4)

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(1) Halpin, A.W. and Croft, D.B. Organisational Climate of Schools, Chicago: Midwest Administration Center, University of Chicago, 1963.

(2) Hoyle, Eric, 'How does the curriculum change'?, Journal of Curriculum Studies, pp. 230-239, Nov, 1969.

(3) Parkes, D.L., 'Consideration, from an FE Viewpoint of the issues raised in the HMA publication, The Government of Schools', Educational administration Bulletin.1(2) pp. 2-11, 1973.

(4) See, for instance, Schmuck, R.A. and Miles, M.B. (eds) Organisation Development in Schools, Palo Alto, California: National Press Books, 1971 ; also Thomas A. Ross, "Changing and improving educational systems and institutions', in Administering Education: International Challenge, Hughes, M.G. (ed), London: Athlone Press, 1975.

6. CONCLUDING COMMENT

In conclusion, I return to the crucial role of the professional-as-administrator and the consequent need for appropriate practically-oriented preparation and training. Enduring and effective structures of participation require imaginative and resourceful leadership at the centre to encourage as well as to sort out and harmonize, the influential acts of the other professionals. Though co-operation rather than leadership may be the truly creative process, we can agree with Charles Barnard that "leadership is the indispensable fulminator of its forces". (1) The formal authority of the chief executive may diminish as procedures become more democratic and participation becomes widespread at all levels, but, with suitable training, his personal influence as leading professional could well be greater. (2) The administrator who has developed the ability to respond in a positive manner to the challenges of team leadership will have an inestimable contribution to make to the mobilization of the expertise and experience of professional staff in the service of the educational enterprise.

It is encouraging to note that there is increasing recognition, both by national governments in developing and developed countries and by international agencies such as IIEP, of the need of systematic preparation and subsequent in-service training of high quality for senior educational administrators. Less readily recognised, but basic to the provision of courses for effectively developing educational leaders rather than managerial technicians, is the need for extensive research in different cultural contexts into the problems and conflicts involved in the integration of professional and organisational relationships in the administration of education. There is much scope for research development, and for the diffusion of good practice.

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(1) Barnard, C.I. The Functions of the Executive, Cambridge Mass, Harvard University Press, 1938.

(2) Hughes, M.G. 'School headship in transition' London Educational Review, 1 (3), 1972.